

BARNARD CASTLE, IN DURHAM.

The Castle of Barnard stonolith stately upon Tees.—LELAND.

The moon is in her summer glow;
But hoarse and high the breezes blow
And, racking o'er her face, the cloud
Varies the tincture of her shroud;
On Barnard's towers, and Tees's stream,
She changes as a guilty dream,
When Conscience, with remorse and fear,
Goads sleeping Fancy's wild career.
Her light seems now the blush of shame,
Seems now fierce Anger's darker flame,
Shifting that shade, to come and go,
Like Apprehension's hurried glow.
Then Sorrow's livery dims the air,
And dies in darkness, like Despair.
Such varied hues the warder sees
Reflected from the woodland Tees;
Then from old Baliol's tower looks forth
Sees the clouds mustering in the north,
Hears, upon turret-roof and wall,
By fits the splashing rain-drop fall
Lists to the breeze's boding sound,
And wraps his shaggy mantle round.

SIR WALTER SCOTT'S *Rokeby*.

THE chronicle of Mickleton states that "Guy Baliol came into England with the Conqueror, and to him gave William Rufus the barony of Bywell, in Northumberland, and the forests of Teesdale and Narwood with the lordship of Middleton in Teesdale and Gainford, with also their royalties, franchises, and immunities." Barnard Castle did not then exist, but the commanding situation attracted the notice of Barnard, the son of Guy he reared his castle on the lofty cliff which overhangs the Tees, called it after his own name, BARNARD'S

VOL. XXV.

CASTLE, and made it the head and seat of his barony and feudal government. Peasants and retainers gathered for protection and favour around and under the walls of their chieftain's fortress. Barnard and his descendants granted to the increasing population common rights and civil immunities; and a borough and market town arose under the shelter of these powerful barons, separate from and independent of the wide patrimony of St. Cuthbert. A son of the same name succeeded to the patrimony in 1167. Of him it is related that, in 1174, he joined Robert de Stuteville, and other northern barons, in relieving Alnwick castle, then besieged by William, king of Scotland. "Towards morning, when they had proceeded about twenty-five miles from Newcastle, so thick a fog arose as to render the march dubious or dangerous; but sensible of the advantages of speed and decision, 'Stay or turn who will,' said Baliol, 'if I go alone, yet will I onward.' Fortune favoured the enterprise; the mist suddenly dispersed, and the towers of Alnwick glittered before them in the morning sun. William of Scotland was observed at some distance in the open field, with no stronger escort than a party of sixty horse, whilst most of his troops, fearless of any surprise, were plundering the country in scattered parties. After a short but gallant resistance, the Lion of Scotland was led away prisoner, and delivered to King Henry at Northampton."

In the turbulent reign of King John, this castle held out against the barons in favour of the sovereign. In 1116, the occupier, Hugh Baliol, was joined in commission with Philip de Ulcotes, then guardian of the bishopric, to defend the northern marches of Teesdale against

an expected invasion of the Scots. In August, 1216, Alexander of Scotland entered England as an ally of Louis of France (to whom the pope had granted John's kingdom); he swept through Cumberland with a powerful army, and reconnoitred Baliol's stronghold. "Whilst Alexander and his attendants were surveying the rocky strength of the fortress, a man on the battlements discharged a shaft from a cross-bow which struck Eustace Vesey (Alexander's brother-in-law) on the forehead with such might that he fell dead to the ground." At this fatal accident, the Scots immediately drew off their forces." In the service of King John, "among whose faults that of forgetting to reward the services of his adherents could not justly be counted," Baliol seems to have acquired some habits which he did not find it convenient to relinquish. "Certain it is," says Dugdale, "that Hugh Baliol benefited himself not a little in those troublesome times of King John; for when all was quiet, at the entrance of Henry III., he could not forbear his wonted course of plundering." This is only one of the numerous illustrations of the general corruption of morals among all classes of society that always accompanies civil war.

In 1278, John Baliol succeeded at an early age to the vast possessions of his family. From his mother he inherited Devorgilla in Scotland, whence "he derived the very dubious blessing of the nearest claim in blood to the crown of Scotland, after the decease of the Maid of Norway." Under the decision of Edward I. of England, his title was pronounced superior to those of Bruce and Hastings; he was crowned King of Scotland in 1292, and soon after did homage to Edward for his crown. The succeeding events of his life belong to the history of Scotland, rather than to that of his castle.

On the forfeiture of John Baliol's English estates, in 1296, Anthony Beke, bishop of Durham, seized Barnard Castle and its dependencies in right of his royal purchase. The castle and honour of Barnard were seized by the king and granted to Guy Beauchamp, earl of Warwick, one of the most powerful of the English nobles. Some of the prelates who succeeded Beke resisted this alienation, and sought to recover the severed estates. In the first year of Edward III., parliament acknowledged the claims of the see on Barnard Castle to be just, and writs commanding restitution were issued. These, and repeated orders to deliver up possession to the bishop were never obeyed, and "for five descents, the Beauchamps and their princely successors, the Nevills of Warwick, held, with one slight interruption, full possession of Barnard Castle, which never again became subject to the see of Durham."

The great Earl of Warwick, who fell in Barnet-field, on Easter-day, 1471, left two daughters, Isabel, who married George, duke of Clarence, and Anne, successively wife of Edward, prince of Wales, and of Richard the Third. On the attainder of Clarence, Richard obtained undivided possession of the castle; at his death it fell into the hands of Henry the Seventh, but how long it remained in the possession of the crown is not known. It appears to have been vested in Nevill, earl of Westmoreland, some time before the forfeiture of the last earl, in 1569, when, during the disturbances in the north, which involved in ruin the great houses of Percy and Nevill, Sir George Bowes threw himself into Barnard Castle, which he had defended against the main body of the insurgents for eleven days, and then surrendered for want of provisions, on honourable terms. The delay gave time to the Earls of Warwick and Sussex to advance, and mainly contributed to the speedy suppression of the insurrection. For this eminent service, Sir George Bowes obtained the demesnes under a lease. "What the penury or prudence of Elizabeth had retained, the prodigality of James lavished on a favourite; and, in 1611, the fee of the castle and manor were granted to Robert Carr, Viscount Rochester, afterwards Earl of Somerset, on whose disgrace and condemnation to death, the lordship

was resumed by the crown; and soon after, with Brancepeth, and the other forfeited estates, was settled for the maintenance of Charles, prince of Wales, by demise, for ninety-nine years, to Sir Francis Bacon, and others, with power to grant leases for twenty-seven years, or three lives. In 16—, the surviving grantees assigned the unexpired residue of the term in the demesne lands of Barnard Castle, &c., to Sir John Henry Vane, Knt. This was the first footing that the Vanes obtained in Barnard Castle. In 1640, Sir Henry Vane had a grant from the crown of various privileges annexed to his honour or lordship of Raby and Barnard Castle, under which the lordship is still vested in the Duke of Cleveland, Earl of Darlington."

It appears, however, that in 1630, this fortress was unroofed and totally dismantled. After this date, several entries occur in the court rolls, which prove the ruinous and deserted condition of the castle; orders against encroachments by new buildings in the moat; and prohibitions against carrying away materials for building, or laying rubbish against the wall.

The remains of the castle cover an extent of ground equal to about six acres and three quarters. The most massive portions are at the edge of a steep rock, about eighty feet above the river, in the north-west corner of the principal area, commanding a most beautiful prospect up the river.

The present ruins do not convey an adequate idea of this ancient stronghold in the time of its prosperity. It was inclosed from the town by a strong and high wall, with a gateway from the present market-place, and another to the north from the Flatts. The area entered by the market-place gate does not appear to have had any communication with the chief strongholds and bulwarks of the place, but probably contained the chapel; it is separated from the interior buildings by a deep fosse, which surrounds the rest of the fortress.

This area is fenced with a high wall along the edge of the rocks behind Briggate or Bridgegate street. In all this length of wall, there appears no cantonment, bastion, or turret; if ever it had any embrasures, they are now totally gone. To the north the wall has a more ancient and fortified appearance. The gateway to the Flatts opens from a large area to the Roman road, which on the one hand communicated with the ford that gave name to the village on the Yorkshire banks of the river, called Street-ford, now corrupted to Stratford; and on the other hand led towards Street-le-ham and Staindrop. This area, together with that before described, were anciently used to receive the cattle of the adjoining country, in times of invasion and public danger. The gateway last-mentioned is defended by one half-round tower, or demi-bastion, and the broken walls show some appearance of maskings and outworks; and at a turn of the wall, towards the south, there was a tower, which by its projection, flanked the wall towards the gate. Over the fosse there was a drawbridge to the gate. In this area are the remains of some edifices, one of which is called Brackenbury's Tower, having deep vaults, now lying open; but as the ground is covered with a thick old orchard, it is impossible to form any distinct idea of the former state of edifices therein. The chief strongholds of this fortress stand on more elevated ground than any within the areas described; surrounded by a dry ditch or covered way with small gateways through the cross or intersecting walls; this ditch is terminated on one hand by a sally-port that commanded the bridge to the west, and perhaps was anciently of use to scour the pass under the wall, now Briggate street, and the other sally-port to the north; the covered way almost surrounding the inner fortress. The area in which the chief erections were arranged is almost circular; and the buildings are of different eras. Towards the orchard the walls are of modern and superior architecture, supported by strong buttresses defended by a square turret towards the east; to the south the wall appears very ancient and thick, and has been strengthened by trains or lines of large oak

beams, disposed in tiers in the centre of the wall at equal distances, so as to render it firm against battering engines, on each side of the sally-port, to the bridge, within the gate, was a semi-circular demi-bastion, loaded with earth to the top, very strong and of rough mason-work, built chiefly of blue flints; the greatest part of one of the bastions still stands; the other, whose foundation only appears, has long been gone to decay. Here are some of the most ancient parts of the castle, and probably part of the works of the Balliols. The west side of the area contained the principal lodgings; in some parts six stories in height: the state rooms stood on this quarter; two large pointed windows, looking upon the river, seem to be the most modern, together with a bow window hung on corbels in the upper ceilings, of which is the figure of a boar passant, relieved, and in good preservation. Adjoining to these apartments, and in the north-west corner of the fortress, is a circular tower of excellent masonry, in ashler work, having a vault, the roof of which is plain, without ribs or central pillar. This vault is thirty feet in diameter, and the stairs which conduct to the upper apartments are channelled in the wall. In the adjoining grounds, called the Flatts, in a large reservoir cut in swampy ground, called the Ever, water was collected and conveyed thence in pipes, to supply the garrison and castle inclosed within the walls of the outer areas in times of public danger, for which protection the adjacent lands paid a rent called Castle-guard rent, for the castle ward. By the cognizance of the boar, and the apparent age of the buildings last described, these works were probably by Richard, Duke of Gloucester.

Such is the description of this ancient stronghold, accompanied by a plan of the ground plot by Mr. Grose, published by Mr. Hutchinson, in his *History of Durham*, 1785. Mr. Surtees, in his beautiful work on the same subject, gives a very complete history of this castle, with memoirs of its early lords, and the present appearance of its ruins. From the time when Hutchinson wrote, much of this castle has fallen, and many of the interior buildings have been almost obliterated. The outer area is a pasture, and the space within the inner moat a garden and orchard, inclosed by the shell of the mighty fortress.

Old Leland says, "The castelle of Barnard stondeth stately upon Tese. The first area hath no very notable thing yn it, but the fair chapelle, wher be two cantuaries."

Mr. Surtees remarks, that though the "fair chapelle" has totally perished, the ground plot as described by Leland, and the division of the outward and inner area, may be still most distinctly traced. The fortress stood probably in all its princely strength when Sir George Bowes in 1569, stood a siege of eleven days against the whole power of the insurgent earls; but, if ballad authority be evidence, it seems not easy to understand what is intended by the outer walls of "lime and bricke." Perhaps on the whole it is most reasonable to suppose that the insurgents got possession of the outer area, but were baffled before the chief strength of the place, or citadel, as it might be termed, within the inner moat.

The baron to his castle fled,
To Barnard Castle then fled hee;
The uttermost walls were earthe to im,
The earles have won them presentlie.

The uttermost walles were lime and bricke;
But though they won them soon anone,
Long ere they won the innermost walls,
For they were cut in rocks of stone.

Immediately under the command of the castle is the bridge which connects the long winding street of Briggate with Yorkshire. Leland says: "From Barnardes Castelle over the right fair bridge on Tese of three

arches, I entered strait into Richmondschire; that str streatched up with that tpe to the very hed of Tese." The present bridge consists of two arches handsomely groined. The date, E. R. 1569, is on a stone in the wall fronting Briggate.

Immediately without the north wall of the castle are the Flatts, now inclosed and cultivated, with the *Ever*, or reservoir, mentioned by Hutchinson. The view from this natural terrace is magnificent. To the left is the ruined castle, crowning its rocky steep, and the old bridge; westward, the woody river valley is seen for miles, and beyond are the blue distant hills, near the sources of the Tees; in front and across the river the eye is relieved by resting on the neat scattered village of Starforth, with its simple church, surrounded by upland inclosures of green pasturage; and westward, on the deep woods of Lartington, backed by the wild distant moorlands.

"The whole of the banks beneath and beyond the Flatts are a scene of continued beauty. The Tees rushes broad and wild, whirling in eddies of surf, or roaring over masses of solid stone, covering the mill-dam with foam and spray, beneath high shelving banks, covered with native oak and hazel, and intersected by the Woolhouse Beck, and smaller streams falling rapidly from the hill. On the Yorkshire side, a small water, descending from the romantic deep dale, and emerging from the woods of Lartington, throws its slender streamlet into the Tees."

The author of the *Tour in Teesdale* describes these wild scenes in beautiful and animated language:—

When you reach the tangled dell at the end of the terrace (the Flatts), wind down a small track to the rivulet, and take the road through a fine hanging wood by the Tees side to a small inclosure,—part of an ancient park, in the true character of Shakspeare's forest scenes, where his outlaws revel and his fairies sport; keep the river, and you will gain a most truly solemn and sequestered spot, completely closed in by wood, and undisturbed by any sound save the remotely-dashing water. The wild forms of the venerable oaks that skirt the old moss-covered wall of the inclosure; the noble height of the opposite hills, covered to the summit with lofty trees; the glassy smoothness of the river at your feet; and the scattered masses of rock in its channel, impress you with delicious awe. Ascend the hill, and go through a ploughed field, along a carriage road, to a thatched helm or shed in a little wild coppice, (in themselves a pleasing picture,) and you will enjoy a most enchanting scene; but seek for a small oak beyond, near a serpentine path, rather below the summit of the hill, on the brow of the river, and you command at once a view each way. I shall not pretend to describe it; the pen and pencil must alike fail.

The following is what Mr. Surtees appropriately terms "a cabinet picture," by the same artist:—

Walk over the Mains,—a large pasture on the contrary side of the town to the Flatts; cross it towards the mill, and follow the Tees to the Abbey Bridge. A segment of the arch is seen, deeply shaded by the hanging woods on each side of the river, which, considerably below, presents an unbroken lake-like surface, but within a hundred yards recovers its rough impetuous character, and foams over opposing rocks towards the bridge. Endeavour to get on the rocks, and pass under the bridge, to the distance of about a hundred and fifty yards, till you are opposite to a large mass of rock in the mid-stream; turn round, and, through the majestic arch, the ruins of Egleston Abbey appear like a framed picture. Climb the hill, and return by the fields to the high road. As you approach, you have another and perhaps the best view of the abbey, and an extensive and diversified country. Go down to the bridge which looks on two fine avenues of wood and rock, both up and down the river; one terminated by the tower of Barnard Castle, and taking in the ruins and a rude bridge over a small rivulet; the other closed by the house at Rokeby.

We are more disposed to make candid allowances for the defects of our own age than for those of preceding times.

HONEST loss is preferable to shameful gain; for, by the one a man is a sufferer but once; by the other, always.

THAT state of life is most happy, where superfluities are not required, and necessities are not wanting.—*Plutarch.*

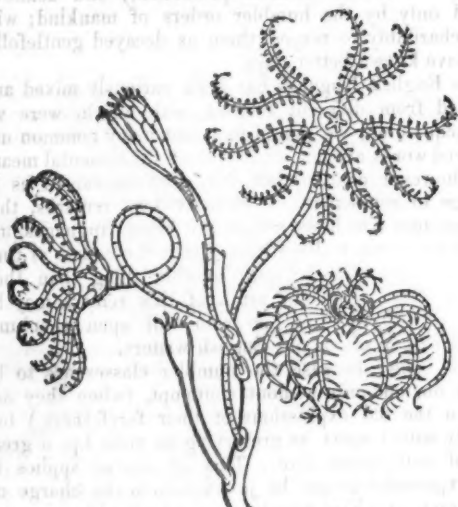
SEA-STARs.

The heavens
Were thronged with constellations, and the seas
Sown with their images.—JAMES MONTEGOMERY.

"As there are stars in the sky, so are there stars in the sea," says the naturalist to whom we are indebted for the first work ever published for the express purpose of elucidating the history of star-fishes. This naturalist was John Henry Link, an apothecary of Leipsic, who rendered himself remarkable by his botanical and zoological acquirements. He published the work in question in 1733, in the form of a handsome folio volume, containing figures of numerous species and varieties of the animals, with short descriptions attached.

Star-fishes, or sea-stars, are so common on most shores, that few persons can have visited the sea-side without observing some of the ordinary kinds left on the sand at the receding of the tide, or lying among rocks below high-water mark. The bodies of these animals consist of five, or more rays, proceeding from a centre; hence, by the children of fishermen, they are sometimes called by such names as "five fingers," "dead man's hands," &c. In some places, these harmless animals appear to be the objects of superstition and dread; and such feelings are doubtless enhanced by the wild stories of sailors, who, in returning from tropical countries, describe star-fishes of such enormous growth, that they are capable of entangling and drawing down a ship's boat. Such accounts will be further noticed when we come to speak of the different species to which they more particularly refer; but in commencing a description of sea-stars, it may be desirable to take a less common, but most interesting species, to which the attention of naturalists has been particularly drawn, in consequence of new discoveries respecting its structure, and the changes to which it is subject.

I. THE ROSY FEATHER-STAR.



Comatula rosacea. (LINK.)

THE Rosy Feather-Star, so called by Professor Forbes, in his recent *History of British Star-Fishes*, is the only animal of its kind at present inhabiting our seas; and as belonging to the almost extinct order of Crinoid star-fishes, it is an object of much interest among naturalists. The words of the Professor himself will best convey to our readers an idea of the former importance of these animals in the economy of the world, as evidenced by the fossil remains with which our country abounds.

Now scarcely a dozen kinds of these beautiful animals live in the seas of our globe, and individuals of these kinds

are comparatively rarely to be met with: formerly they were among the most numerous of the ocean's inhabitants,—so numerous, that the remains of their skeletons constitute great tracts of the dry land as it now appears. For miles and miles we may walk over fragments of the Crinoidæ; fragments which were once built up in animated forms, encased in living flesh, and obeying the will of creatures among the loveliest of the inhabitants of the ocean. Even in their present disjointed and petrified state, they excite the admiration, not only of the naturalist, but of the common gazer; and the name of Stone-lily, popularly applied to them, indicates a popular appreciation of their beauty. To the philosopher they have long been subjects of contemplation as well as of admiration. In him they raise up a vision of an early world,—a world, the potentates of which were not men, but animals,—of seas, on whose tranquil surface myriads of convoluted nautili sported, and in whose depths millions of lily-stars waved wilfully on their slender stems.

The most curious part of the history of the feather-star is this; that in the early stages of its growth it is mounted on a stalk, and gradually increases and unfolds at its extreme end; but when its growth is complete, it is cast off from the parent stem, and commences a free and separate existence in the star-like form in which it is usually found.

While it is not uncommon to find animals (among the zoophytes, for instance,) which remain fixed to one spot during the whole period of their existence, and on the other hand, to find others that are free and locomotive in their first stages, and afterwards become permanently fixed; it is quite a new fact, and one without parallel in the whole range of the organized part of creation, that "an animal growing for a period, like a flower, fixed by its stem," should drop from its pedicel and become, during the remainder of its life, free and locomotive. It is not to be wondered at, therefore, that when Mr. Thomson first discovered the young animal in its first or fixed state of existence, he supposed it to belong to those which are permanently fixed, and named it in accordance with that supposition. After discovering his mistake he writes, "When I formerly described the young of the *Comatula* as a new species of *Pentactinus*, no person could have suspected so anomalous and unexpected a result as that it was the young state of this curious star-fish, an animal not only free, but leading the most vagrant life of any of the tribe with which it has been associated by naturalists,—at one time crawling about among submarine plants, at others floating to and fro, adhering to thin fragments by means of its dorsal claspers, or even swimming about after the manner of the medusæ."

It will now be interesting to describe the appearance of the feather-star in its perfect or free state as it is usually seen, and for this purpose we shall endeavour to simplify the scientific account of Professor Forbes, in which he describes the specimens taken by himself in the Irish Sea. The adult animal, then, consists of a cup-shaped calcareous base, having on the outside of the cup a number of slender, jointed, simple arms, and on the inside, a soft body, which is the stomach of the animal, with a membrane, and other appendages. The arms are five in number, but as each arm separates into two parts very near to the base, the animal appears to have ten arms. The arms are not all exactly alike, but are of two kinds. One kind has fourteen joints, and a thick, blunt, curved, claw, which is smaller than the joints, and has a horny lustre: the other kind has eighteen rough joints, and an almost straight claw, which is larger than the joints preceding it. All the arms are pinnated or winged, that is having a number of small, slender arms, or filaments, proceeding from the sides of the principal arm. In a full-grown feather-star there are thirty-four of these pinnæ on each side of each arm. The stomach of the animal is thin and membranous, and has an opening in the centre. From the side of the stomach proceeds an intestine which winds round the body, and has a laterally-placed opening. The membrane, or skin which covers the stomach, is also the

covering of the arms, and branches out to the extremity of the pinnae. This membrane forms a series of canals, extending over the whole under-surface of the animal. The margins of these canals are everywhere studded with brown spots, supposed to be the ovaries of the animal. Every other portion of the animal's body is a deep rose-colour.

The singular part of the history of this animal is the deposition of its eggs on the stems and branches of corallines, and the attachment of the young animals thereto during the early stages of their progress. Mr. Thomson says that it is strongly to be suspected that the animal is gifted with the power of placing the eggs in appropriate situations, otherwise we should find them indiscriminately on fuci, shells, stones, &c., which does not appear to be the case. However this may be, the attached ova of the feather-star is first perceived as a flattened oval disk, which afterwards gives exit to an obscurely pointed head, in which may already be detected the incipient formation of the arms, mouth, &c. The change of the young animal from its stalked to its perfect form, although never having been witnessed, was considered established by the arguments of the discoverer, founded on the examination of a variety of specimens. But in the introduction to Professor Forbes's work, the feather-star is distinctly stated to be in its youth fixed and pedunculate, like a zoophyte; in its adult state free and star-like, and the author adds, "When dredging in Dublin Bay in August, 1840, with my friends Mr. R. Ball and Mr. W. Thomson, we found numbers of the phytocrinus or polype state of the feather-star, more advanced than they had ever been seen before; so advanced that we saw the creature drop from its stem and swim about a true comatula; nor could we find any difference between it and the perfect animal, when examining it under the microscope."

These animals in their free state frequent both deep and shallow water: those of the largest size are usually found in deep water. In swimming they move about their arms in the same way as the medusae, raising themselves from the bottom, and swimming very rapidly. Professor Forbes has observed that they effect the movement by advancing the arms alternately, five at a time.

The feather-star is found in many parts of the British coast. It was found at Milford Haven by Mr. Miller; in other parts of Wales by Mr. Adams; on the west coast of Scotland by Pennant; and at Penzance by Llwyd. It is also abundant on the Dublin coast, at Cork, and on the shores of Antrim and Down. The two species of comatula, usually described in our zoological works, are now believed to be the same animal of different ages, or in different states of preservation, and as identical with the species described by Lamarck as *Comatula mediterranea*.

The author last quoted also informs us that when a freshly-caught feather-star is plunged into cold fresh water, it dies in a state of contraction; but if not killed in this way, or in spirits, it breaks itself into pieces. When dying, it gives out a most beautiful purple colour, tinging the liquid in which it is killed. This colour can be retained for a long time in spirits. The fact was long since noticed by Bartholinus, who observed it at Naples.

In common with various other animals, the feather-star is infested by its own peculiar parasitical pest. This is a minute nondescript animal resembling a flat scale, which runs about with considerable rapidity over the arms of the feather-star, and which has been observed occasionally to protrude a flexible tubular proboscis. The disk, or body of this creature, is surrounded by a number of moving tentacula, and is also furnished with five pair of short members ending in a hooked claw.

Our illustration being a highly magnified representation of the comatula, will give some idea of the appearance of the feather-stars in the early stages of their growth, while they are seated on their respective stalks.

The stalk is very long, when compared with the body of the animal. Professor Forbes found it to consist of eighteen joints. Under the microscope it appeared of a granular texture. When compressed between plates of glass, and highly magnified, the substance of the column, as well as that of the body of the animal, presented a beautiful reticulated appearance, in consequence of the separation of the plates of calcareous matter with which it was studded. These plates were mostly pentagonal. They are themselves composed of lesser particles, having apparently the same form. This peculiar granular texture is seen in the calcareous substance of other *Echinodermata*, and is favourable to the spheroidal growth of these creatures.

ON THE LANGUAGE OF UNEDUCATED PEOPLE.

I.

WHILE we are commenting on Shakspeare, mending or marring his text, the dialect of the hour passes by our ears unheeded. The language of every country is as subject to change as the inhabitants, property, building, &c.; and while antiquaries are groping for the vestiges of tottering castles, and poring over fragmentary inscriptions just risen from the grave;—why not advert also to *Words and Phrases*, which carry with them the like stamp of age?

Thus writes the ingenious Samuel Pegge in his *Anecdotes of the English Language*, which chiefly regard the local dialect of London and its neighbourhood, and are highly amusing and clever. From these anecdotes we propose to make such a selection as may show the origin of some of the "colloquial barbarisms," as they were called by Dr. Johnson, which still maintain their hold on the lower orders of people; but which, according to our authority, are, in many cases, far from being inaccurate, and may well be considered as old, unfortunate, and discarded words and expressions, which are now turned out to the world at large by persons of education, (without the smallest protection,) and acknowledged only by the humbler orders of mankind; who seem charitably to respect them as decayed gentlefolks that have known better days.

The English language has been variously mixed and modified from different sources, with which, were we well acquainted, we should find that many common unobserved words are not without their fundamental meanings, however contemptible they may appear to us in this age of refinement. Bishop Wilkins remarks, that all languages which are vulgar, or living languages, are subject to so many alterations, that in the course of time they will appear to be quite another thing than they were at first. And the truth of this remark may be easily proved by any one who will open a volume penned by one of our old English writers.

Such being the case, the humbler classes are to be looked on, not only without contempt, (when they adhere to the old expressions of their forefathers,) but actually with respect, as preserving on their lips a great deal of antiquarian lore. This of course applies to such expressions as can be justified from the charge of inaccuracy, and have merely gone out of polite usage on account of some caprice of fashion.

There have been at different periods in the history of the English language, persons of superior intellect, who adhered by choice to the ancient dialect of their forefathers in preference to the refinements which had been subsequently introduced. Such a person was Spenser, who, writing in the reign of Queen Elizabeth when the language was reputed to be in a state of refinement, yet both in his *Pastorals* and in his *Faëry Queen* imitated the language of Chaucer, on the conviction that it was stronger and more energetic than that of his own time. Warton says of him, that "he laboured to restore, as to their rightful heritage, such good and natural English words as have been a long time out of use, and almost

clean disherited." It is no very easy matter to read and understand Chaucer and the poets of that age in their old-fashioned spelling, even when put into modern type; but in their ancient garb of black letter, it is still less so, until the reader has been long familiarized to the task. The antiquated French tongue appears to be even more unintelligible to a Frenchman of the present age.

Orthography, therefore, is for the most part what the literary and fashionable world for the time being are pleased to make it, and, for want of established principles, the mode of spelling established as perfectly right at the commencement of a century, may be discarded as palpably wrong, before its close. Considerable alterations in spelling have been made of late years; thus such words as honour, favour, &c., have been cut down to honor, favor, &c., although Dr. Johnson gives no instance of these words being so written. The words physic, music, public, &c., are now universally written without the final *k*, which no schoolboy might have dared to omit at the commencement of the present century. And this is not the first abridgment which these words have suffered, for they were written in earlier times, physicke, musicke, &c. Yet many other words ending in *ck* have been allowed to retain their final letter, as hemlock, bullock, &c., without any very apparent reason.

Idiom may be considered as the dress and fashion of expression, and in this every language has its peculiarities. May not then the inhabitants of a metropolis, who are conceived to be an order of men superior to the vassalage of the remoter parts of the kingdom, and whose manners have been expressly handed down to us in the words "politeness" and "urbanity," be allowed a few singularities, new and old, while every other part of the island abounds with so many? All courts, and our own among the rest, have ever affected a *ton*, or refined dialect of their own; but it does not follow that the language of the city is without a basis, though, like the foundation of the city itself, it may lie deep. Respecting this language of courts, it may be remarked, that it is most uncertain in its character, and may receive important changes out of compliment to the monarch. Of this Mr. Pegge gives an instance in the case of the French word *carosse* (a coach), which was originally feminine, as its termination implies, and as it is also found in Dictionaries prior to the year 1643. After that period, however, it was given as avowedly masculine, and the change is said to have arisen from the following trivial grammatical error. Louis the Fourteenth came to the throne at the age of about five years, and soon afterwards on inquiring for his coach, he happened to confound the gender, and called out, "Où est mon carosse?" This was sufficient to stamp the word "*carosse*" masculine, of which gender it has remained to the present moment. Such a trifling puerile error is not to be wondered at; but that a whole nation should adopt a change of gender in compliment to it, is a palpable absurdity.

The humble and accepted dialect of London is subject to few innovations. The cockneys are contented with the received language and pronunciation which has descended to them unimpaired and unaugmented through a long line of ancestry. They have not corrupted their native tongue to any great extent; but are in general right, though upon unfashionable principles. Of the words most deformed by this class of persons, Mr. Pegge has, however, given a tolerably long catalogue, and we can only select a few, with his remarks and vindications. The word *unpossible* is commonly used for impossible; but Milton uses *unactive* instead of *inactive*, and *unsufferable* instead of *insufferable*. Sir Henry Neville, also, in a letter to Sir Robert Cecil in 1602, says "It is an *unpossible* thing for me to do." Shakspeare may be also quoted: "It is all *unpossible*."

Rich. II. Act ii. Sc. 2. Unpartial for impartial, was also used by writers in Shakspeare's time. In the place of *un*, is a modern refinement.

The use of the word *least-wise*, instead of "at least," is very common in London, and has an odd effect to the ears of a stranger. But that this expression is not absolutely inaccurate, we may gather from its being employed in *The Life of Lord Herbert of Cherbury*, where it stands in conjunction with "at, thus: "At least-wise." The word *wise* is from the German *weise*, signifying *manner*, and may perhaps as fairly combine with least as with those words which are usually associated with it, namely, like-wise, other-wise, &c. It is also common to hear "aggravate" employed instead of "irritate," but this is an error common to various parts of the country. A *conquest* of people, is used instead of a *concourse*, and *gownd* instead of *gown*. These are evident blunders arising from ignorance, as are the following: *vemon*, for *venom*; *vemonous*, for *venomous*; *sermont*, for *sermon*; *verment*, for *vermin*; *palaretick*, for *paralytic*; *sitti-ation*, for *situation*; and also a number of improper plurals, as *somewheres*, *nowheres*, *offens*, *everywheres*, *anywheres*, *anyhows*, *some-hows*, *no-hows*.

Many cockneys introduce an *e* in the word *commandment*, pronouncing it *commandment*; but in *The Merchant of Venice*, Act iv. Sc. 1, it occurs, "Be valued 'gainst your wife's *commandment*;" and again in *Henry VI.*, P. I. Act i. Sc. 3, "From him I have express *commandment*." Again, they employ the word *anger* as a verb "to make angry." Dr. Johnson gives this verb a place in his Dictionary, and quotes Hooker, Shakspeare, Lord Clarendon, and Pope. In the North, it is customary to say of a person who stints his servants in their food, "he *hungers* them," an expression corresponding with that before us. Perhaps the error of saying *shay* and *po-shay*, for *chaise* and *post-chaise*, is a widely-distributed one. The persons who use it, evidently think that *shay* is the singular, and *shays* the plural. Other mistakes can easily be traced to carelessness and ignorance. Thus, *partner* becomes *partender*; *bachelor*, *bachelдор*; *obstreperous*, *obstropolous*; *Covent Garden*, *Common Garden*; *Piazas*, *Pee-aches*; *cover*, *kivir*; *prodigy*, *progidy*; *contiguous*, *contagious*; *dubious*, *duborous*; *musician*, *musicianer*. They convert *Kensington* into *Kingsington* (probably because there is a palace there), and *Portugal* into *Portingal*. Of this last it appears that *Holinshed*, *Stowe*, and most of the old chroniclers, wrote it *Portingale*. In a letter written by the Earl of Salisbury in 1607, the Portuguese are called the *Portingalls*. When the Portuguese money (Portugal-pieces as they were called) were current in England, this word was in the mouth of every cockney who had a *Portingal-piece* in his pocket.

So good an excuse cannot be offered for the expressions "for 'fraid of," instead of "for fear of;" "chimley" instead of "chimney;" "scrowdge" instead of "crowd;" "squeedge" for "squeeze;" "postès" and "posteses" for "posts." *Postes*, *ghostes*, &c., are, indeed, ancient plurals, preserved by old Scottish writers; but the additional syllable given by cockneys is most unnecessary. *Margent* is used for *margin*, but this cannot be branded as erroneous, having been patronized by Milton, Shakspeare, and other high names. *Bailey* and Dr. Johnson allow both. *Contrary* is also used for *contrary*; *blasphémous* for *blasphemous*. Poetical licence allows this; "let then the cockney," says Mr. Pegge, "have a prose licence." Shakspeare says, "And themselves banding in contrary parts," and Milton, "And with contrary blast proclaims most deeds." Milton also says, "Oh argument blasphemous, false, and proud." Curious perversions and interpolations occur in the following terms common in London. *Successfully* is used for *successively*; respectively, for

respectfully; mayoralty, for mayoralty; admiralty, for admiralty; commonality, for commonalty; proprietor, for proprietor; non-plush'd, for non-plus'd; discommode, for incommode; colloquing, for colleaguing; despicable, for despicible; paragraff, for paragraph; stagnated, for staggered. Speaking of the last expression, Mr. Pegge says, "This appears to be a much stronger and more expressive word than our *staggered*, which only intimates a quaking of the external frame; whereas, *stagnating* implies that the circulation of the blood, and the operation of every vital function, were suspended for the moment. I do not, however, give the cockney credit for the force of the word; it seems to have been a random shot, and as if the first syllable had taken its chance for the rest of the word." A singular and egregious error is that of saying, unbethought, instead of recollected. "I unbethought myself," is nonsense. It is suggested that it may be a perversion of "I onbethought myself," or "I bethought myself on it."

The inventive powers of the humbler classes have also been exercised in the formation of such words as an-otomy, meaning a skeleton; and disgruntled, offended. "A strange word (disgruntled)," says our amusing author, "carrying with it an exaggeration of the term disconcerted. It seems to be a metaphor taken from the hog; which I cannot account for, unless naturalists say that hogs grunt from some pleasurable sensation. I have, however, printed authority for it in Sir Philip Warwick's *Memoirs*, where, speaking of the Earl of Manchester being made prisoner in the house of his daughter, the Countess of Rutland, the writer says that the lady 'was much *disgruntled* at it.' But after all, the word, as used by the knight, must have been an unguarded escape; for he was rather of humble birth in Westminster, a son of an organist of the abbey, and perhaps in early life a chorister." From the lips of the same class we hear solentary, for solitary; ruinated, for ruined; eminent danger, for imminent danger; intosticated, for intoxicated; perwent, for prevent; skrimidge, for skirmish; refuge, for refuse. It is a sort of rule with them to convert *ish*, and *age*, into *idge*; thus we have radidges, rubbidge, furbidge, rummidge. Instead of *nisi prius*, they say *nisi prisi*; and instead of *nolens volens*, *nolus bolus*: pretty good guesses at these hard words, and coming nearer, perhaps, than we might have expected.

The lower orders are very fond of meddling with these difficult words, and therefore soon get out of their depth. If imprisoned in Newgate, they are said to call a "habeas corpus," "a hap'orth of coppers." Other common errors appear in the words vocation, for vacation; loveyer, for lover; nyst and nyster, for nigh and nigher; clost and closter, for close and closer; sinst, for since; wonst, for once; industerous, for industrious; sot, for sat; frags, for fragments; waps, for wasp; moral, for model. Of the last, Mr. Pegge says, "Every cockney hears *morals* talked of, though he is unacquainted with *models*; otherwise he would not say that a child is, by personal likeness, the very *moral* (meaning model) of his father; which is an inversion of the order of things, because the model, as the prototype, must necessarily precede what is formed from it. He might say that the father is the very *moral* (to use his own word) of the child."

But after all, the most striking error in pronunciation among the Londoners lies in the transposition of the *w* and *v*, as in weal for veal; winegar, for vinegar; vicked, for wicked; vig, for wig, &c. The use of the *w* instead of *v*, in compound words, also gives an additional peculiarity, as in knightwood, widowhood, &c., which they pronounce knightwood, widowwood, &c. These are the foibles of the cockney dialect: its more serious errors will next be noticed.

NATURAL HISTORY AND MANAGEMENT OF CAGE-BIRDS.

VII. THE BLACKBIRD. (*Turdus merula*, Linn.)

When snow-drops die, and the green primrose leaves
Announce the coming flower, the Merle's note,
Mellifluous, rich, deep-toned, fills all the vale,
And charms the ravished ear. The hawthorn-bush,
New-budded, in his perch; there the gray dawn
He haunts; and there, with parting light, concludes
His melody.—GRAYMAN'S Birds of Scotland.

THE rich and powerful notes of the Blackbird are so often heard in the streets of country towns, and are so much prized by the owner of the imprisoned favourite, that we must needs class this melodist among cage-birds; although its nature and habits seem to require for it a wide and extensive range, and its song is never so delightful as when sounding from the depth of the woods, or from the top branches of some friendly thicket.

In such situations, the blackbird commences its song very early in the season. It is a frequent and welcome guest in cultivated districts, and multiplies according to the increase and spread of rural labour. Where vegetables and fruits are grown in abundance to supply the wants of some neighbouring town, there blackbirds are sure to be plentiful. If the gardener studies his own interest, he encourages, instead of scaring away, these birds; for they clear the ground of a surprising number of snails and slugs, and thus save many a choice plant.

The blackbird is very generally known, and does not need much description. The black plumage, and the tawny yellow colour of the bill, feet, and circle round the eyes, cause it readily to be distinguished at a distance. It is a larger bird than the song-thrush, but not quite so large as the missel-thrush. Quick-sighted and active, it is not so often seen as the thrush; but hides during the day-time in the thickest shades. Towards evening, and very early in the morning, it comes abroad, and roams over low moist grounds for food. Though it sojourns and nestles near inhabited places, it is distrustful, and watchful of danger. It is said to be able to spy the fowler at a very great distance, so that it is approached with much difficulty. When singing on the top of a low bush, it suddenly ceases on the approach of a footstep, and drops into the bush, slipping through the branches with the greatest facility, and making its way beneath or among the densest foliage. Where blackbirds have been long encouraged, they appear to lose some of their wary and mistrustful character. Thus a recent writer, speaking of the rich grounds on the Middlesex side of the Thames, from Westminster upwards, as far as the market gardens are continued, and of the important services performed by these birds, says, "In walking along the green lanes among the gardens alluded to, the number of blackbirds, and the activity of their labours, are a very pleasing sight; and one might readily imagine (though it is of course a mere matter of imagination) that the birds feel that they are as useful as the human labourers who are at work in the same grounds. They are familiarised to all the ordinary sights and sounds, caring little for the scarecrows which are set up for intimidating other birds; and although no bird is very fond of the report of the musket, blackbirds appear to be less alarmed by it than most others."

The blackbird lives a solitary life, except during the breeding season. This commences early, and it is not uncommon to see young ones at the beginning of May. The place chosen for the nest is a thick bush, an ivied wall, or an old tree. If the birds wish to commence operations before the trees and bushes afford any shelter, they sometimes make their nest in a tuft of long grass, near a tree or hedge. The outside of the nest is formed of moss, lichen, and small roots, worked up with clay or mud, and lined with the softest materials that can be found. Both the parent birds work very hard until the nest is completed, and although it is a neat and well-

finished structure, they generally get it made in the space of a week. The female then deposits four or five eggs, of a greenish-blue colour, with rust-coloured markings. She sits very closely, and her mate brings her food; but he sometimes shares with her in the labour of incubation. Blackbirds' nests are often found very near houses, and the old bird has been known to sit close when within a few yards of human beings, and sometimes has suffered herself to be caught rather than leave the nest; but in the woodland scenes generally chosen by these birds, they are extremely wary, and it is difficult to find the nest. In every case they are jealous of intrusion, and will abandon their eggs, or even eat them, if they happen to be touched. They have also been known to destroy their young.

Young blackbirds are hearty feeders, and keep their parents on the alert to supply their wants. A great number of worms and caterpillars are carried to the nest, and the young ones thrive well on this food. As soon as they are old enough to manage for themselves, they separate from each other and from their parents, and pursue their search after food in the places where it most abounds, adding to their insect diet all kinds of berries and fruits. And here it is that the blackbird makes enemies. It undoubtedly commits extensive depredations on fruit trees, but these must not be considered apart from the benefits conferred by the bird, and which surely atone for what is injurious in its habits.

Blackbirds have two or three broods in the season, according to the nature of the situation. In cold parts of the country, or in late summers, they may have but one brood; and in this case the song does not begin until the season is considerably advanced. Where they breed two or three times, the song is nearly continuous throughout the whole summer. At the close of that season their moulting commences, and is so complete, that some are often seen with their heads entirely bare of feathers. In general, the plumage of the blackbird is beautifully clean, smooth, and glossy, and the bird delights in frequent washings. The neighbourhood of lakes, or slow-moving streams, are therefore favourite places of resort, especially if thickets or hedge-rows afford shelter for the birds.

Towards autumn blackbirds cease to sing, and in general proceed to migrate. Yet there are many that remain through the winter, roosting in hedges and sheltered spots, and often coming into shrubberies and gardens in search of the snails which may still be found there. They also feed on the berries of the hawthorn, holly, ivy, mountain ash, &c. In very severe weather these birds condescend to join the suppliant sparrows and robins that hover near our windows on the look-out for food; and when the cold is excessive, numbers of them perish.

Blackbirds, as well as rooks and crows, have not unfrequently been found with entirely white plumage. It is mentioned in GRIFFITH'S *Cuvier* that among the accidental varieties of the present species some have the plumage quite white, including even the bill and the feet; some have these parts yellow, others have the bill red. Again, individuals have been observed, whose entire plumage was of a yellowish rose-colour, with the bill and feet yellow. On some specimens the head only is white, with three black spots behind the eyes; the iris, the beak, and the feet, being yellow. Others have a sort of magpie plumage, the wings and tail as white as snow, the rest of the body a beautiful black. Lastly, young ones are sometimes seen with some of the quills white from the origin, and for half their length.

Blackbirds, as well as other members of the thrush family, were held in high estimation among the Roman epicures, and were included in their extensive aviaries, where thousands of birds were fattened for the table. These aviaries were vaulted pavilions, with a great number of roosting-places, and very little light.

The rich full-toned song of the blackbird is almost too powerful for a cage, but is nevertheless the cause of the capture of this bird. The wicker prison is kept in the open air, and a single blackbird is quite enough for one street, and generally becomes the annoyance of some of the dwellers therein. When at liberty this bird sings only during the summer season; but in a cage it sings all the year. The blackbird has a good memory, and shows a slight degree of the propensity which is so remarkably exhibited in its relation the "mocking bird." It is mentioned in the *Magazine of Natural History*, that near a clergyman's house in Northamptonshire, a blackbird was in the habit of crowing exactly in the manner of the common cock, and nearly as loud. Perched upon the top bough of an ash-tree it might be seen crowing away, and only resuming for a second or two at intervals its natural song. When the cocks from a neighbouring poultry yard answered it, the little bird seemed delighted, and appeared as if it was trying to rival them in the shrillness of its note. Mr. Neville Wood informs us that he has frequently heard the blackbird cackle as a hen does after laying, especially in the neighbourhood of farms, and places where great numbers of fowls are kept. This power of imitation in the blackbird makes it a still more desirable prize to those who are fond of teaching artificial strains to birds. Like the bull-finch, if properly trained, it will learn two or three airs, and will sing them without confusion or intermixture. Persons wishing to bring up young blackbirds usually take them in the nest as soon as they are feathered. They may be fed at first with a liquid paste made of steeped bread, yolk of egg, and bruised hempseed; afterwards with sheep's heart, minced meat, bread crumbs, and different fruits and berries. Blackbirds are indeed ready to partake of almost anything that is brought to our tables. If it is desired to teach the young birds to sing artificial tunes, they must be taken when the quills of the feathers are just beginning to be developed; because they have not then learned their natural song, and will acquire another the more readily. The blackbird's cage should be a large one, and he may well be permitted to occupy it alone, since his disposition in confinement seems quarrelsome and mischievous. In the work above quoted it is said, "Blackbirds must not be shut up with other birds, for, naturally uneasy and petulant, they will pursue and torment them continually, unless in very large aviaries filled with shrubs and bushes. In this way indeed, they may have the pleasure of making their own nests, and bringing up their young, if they are provided with a sufficient quantity of the proper aliment. To succeed completely it is necessary to abstain from approaching the brood while the little ones are not entirely fledged, for otherwise the old ones will either abandon or devour them."

In order to keep blackbirds in health it is particularly necessary to furnish them with the means of bathing every day. If this and their food are properly attended to, they may live in confinement ten or twelve years.



THE BLACKBIRD